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SIGNIFICANT MOVEMENTS IN CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

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SIGNIFICANT MOVEMENTS IN CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

By W. S. DEFFENBAUGH,

Chief of City School Division.

CONTENTS.—Administration—Research bureaus—Teachers' salaries, qualifications, councils—School buildings—Platoon, or work-study-play school—Tests—Special classes—Unification of program of studies.

In a brief chapter treating of the progress and status of education in the cities of the country it is impossible to treat of all the phases of modern city school systems with their regular day schools, night schools, continuation schools, special schools, clinics, etc. Some of these phases are discussed in other chapters of the Biennial Survey of Education, and those topics are merely mentioned or entirely omitted in this chapter.

ADMINISTRATION.

Although the majority of the city school systems of the country are independent of the control of the city officials, and although the best authorities on school administration advocate boards of education fiscally independent of the mayor, council, or commission, the question of who shall appropriate the school funds, and even of who shall control their expenditure, seems to be a perennial one in several cities of the country. In Buffalo, N. Y., for instance, an attempt was made by the common council of that city to reduce the salary of the superintendent of the city schools from \$10,000 a year, which had been fixed by the board of education, to \$7,000 a year. The question was settled by the court, which held that the board of education had exclusive power to fix the salaries of its employees under the teachers' salary law, and ordered that the superintendent's salary be restored.

If the court had ruled that the city authorities of Buffalo could reduce salaries at will, the schools would in effect no longer be under the control of the board of education but would be under the control of the city council.

The opinion reads in part:

It was never the intention of the legislature that after the salaries of school superintendents and teachers had been fixed by the board of education, which

was authorized by law to fix salaries and which body was supposedly competent to act in that regard, its action could be rendered of no effect by the capricious act of a commissioner of finance and accounts or comptroller of a city or the common council. If such were the case, it is quite conceivable that a situation might arise where a board of education might absolutely cease to function because of its inability to fix salaries attractive to competent teachers. In this case if the defendant could thus cut down the salary of the superintendent of schools which had been fixed by the body authorized by law to do so, he would practically have it in his power to control the entire salary list of the employees of the department of education in the city, and that certainly was never intended.

Another recent court decision regarding the control of school funds was that made by the Supreme Court of Massachusetts, which ruled that the school committees of that State are independent in fixing salaries of teachers and that they are not limited by appropriations made by the city councils and towns.

The question arose in the case of the mayor of Springfield and other taxpayers, who asked that the school committee be restrained from diverting money for purposes other than those specified in the appropriations made by the city council. The City Council of Springfield, in making up its budget for the year 1921, reduced the appropriation asked for by the school committee. To provide for increase in teachers' salaries the school committee eliminated the summer schools and discontinued 11 kindergartens, and curtailed expenses in other schools constituting distinct headings or items in the budget. The results of the several votes of the school committee were not to exceed the total appropriation for schools but to change the application of some of the items in the budget.

The precise question, therefore, to be decided was whether the school committee had power thus to carry out its policy as to the management of the school system or whether it was bound by the action of the mayor and city council to the items set forth in the budget, without power to modify or change them in any substantial particular.

The court decision, in part, reads:

The school committee is an independent body, intrusted by law with broad powers, important duties, and large discretion. The obligation to select and contract with teachers implies examination as to their fitness, and of necessity carries with it the authority to fix the compensation to be paid. It would be vain to impose upon the school committee responsibility for excellence of the instruction to be afforded to pupils and to deprive them of the power to determine the salaries of teachers. There is much of self-sacrifice and devotion to the common welfare among teachers in the public schools. But, nevertheless, the character of service to be obtained depends to a considerable degree upon the compensation offered. The full and appropriate discharge of their duties by school committees requires ample power to select competent teachers. The legislature, moved by obvious and strong reasons, has vested the school committee with the absolute and unconditional power to agree with teachers upon

their salaries to the end that high standards may be secured and maintained in the education of the youth of the Commonwealth. In the exercise of their honest judgment on the question of salaries for teachers, the school committee are not restricted to the amounts appropriated. For the time during which schools must be kept by law the municipalities must pay such salaries as may be fixed by the school committee. To take this power from the school committee would break up the long-established system of our law in regard to public schools. The only supervision which the city council or towns can exercise over the school committee is to vote to close the schools after they have been kept the length of time specified by the law. The school committee may make all reasonable rules and regulations for the government, discipline, and management of the schools under their charge. This includes a determination, within the bounds set by the statutes, of the subjects to be taught and the nature of the schools to be maintained, and the exercise of discrimination, insight, and wisdom in the election of teachers and in the general supervision of the school system, with all the incidental powers essential to the discharge of their main functions.

The control of school funds has been the subject of discussion in several cities of New Jersey. According to a decision of the State commissioner of education, school boards are not municipal governing bodies and have power to select sites for city schools. The question arose from the fact that that right was disputed by the city commissioners of Long Branch. The commissioner of education also decided that it is mandatory on the part of city officials to raise the appropriation asked, provided the amount is below the 3 per cent allowed by law, once the board of school estimate has decided upon the appropriation required.

The latter point simply reiterated a court decision already had to the effect that when the board of school estimate has fixed and determined the amount necessary for the purchase of land and the erection of a schoolhouse, it is mandatory upon the body having power to make appropriations of money raised by tax to secure the amount to be raised by tax or to borrow the same and secure its repayment by the issue of bonds.

Dual control of schools is being assailed in practically every city where such control obtains. One member of the New York State board of regents says regarding the attempt of the city council at Buffalo to reduce a salary fixed by the board of education:

The people of this city and of every other city who have had experience with political control of the schools, and who have been endeavoring to remove the schools from the political control for a quarter of a century, have no mind practically to dismiss their school boards by making them mere puppets of political powers in the city, so that they can be removed without cause whenever a change in the political majority or too much independence in the school boards shall make it impossible for the municipal authorities to dominate the schools and virtually appoint or dismiss superintendents and trustees as they will.

The regent also refers to conditions in New York City, where the question of dual control has been discussed pro and con for many years. He says:

In New York we know that dual control and red tape have delayed the building of schoolhouses officially determined to be necessary, again and again, for years and years, under different administrations, so that to-day, in spite of the large amount expended upon public schools during the past few years, thousands, tens of thousands, and even hundreds of thousands of children are compelled to attend school at inconvenient hours, or for part time, and are denied those full school opportunities that ought to be the inalienable right of every boy and girl of school age.

That city school systems which are fiscally independent generally have better schools than those that are fiscally dependent has long been the opinion of school men and most others who have studied problems of city school administration. In a study¹ made by Prof. George W. Frasier, dean of the Colorado Teachers' College, he arrived at some definite conclusion on this point by measuring the efficiency of each of 169 city school systems by means of an index number made up of the following factors:

1. The per cent of 16 and 17 year old children.
2. The per cent of elementary classes having fewer than 40 children enrolled.
3. The per cent of children who have 60, or more, square feet of playground space.
4. The per cent of teachers who have six or more years' training above the eighth grade.
5. The per cent of children enrolled who attend all day, and in adequate buildings owned by the school district.
6. The per cent of the increased cost of living from 1913-14 to 1919-20 that was met by increased salaries for elementary women teachers.

After the six percentages were computed for each city, these values were expressed in terms of the standard deviation of the distribution. All comparisons were made on the basis of the sum of the standard deviation values of each city. When the independent city school systems were grouped in one group and the dependent ones in another and comparisons were made, it was found that the independent cities had a higher average rating than the dependent ones. This conclusion was verified by all comparisons made between the two groups: Professor Frasier concludes that there seems to be no doubt but that school districts that are fiscally independent have better schools than those that are fiscally dependent. The reasons he assigns as to why city school systems should be fiscally independent are:

1. Fiscal independence is right in principle.
2. Fiscal independence is not a violation of the correct principle of taxation.
3. Fiscal independence works better in practice.
4. Fiscal independence

¹ Amer. Sch. Bd. Jour., December, 1922. Also "The Control of City School Finances," published by the Bruce Publishing Co., Milwaukee, Wis.

makes for a continuity of educational policy. 5. Fiscal independence provides adequate financial safeguard for a community. 6. Fiscal independence tends to keep politics out of the schools.

RESEARCH BUREAUS.

So complex have city school systems become, especially those of the large and medium sized cities, that the superintendents of schools in such cities can not themselves collect and compile the data needed for their own and the school board's guidance. As a consequence, many boards of education in the large, and some in the small, cities have organized departments or bureaus of educational research to collect and compile data regarding practically every phase of their respective school systems.

Most of the city school research bureaus have been organized within the past three or four years. Ten years ago there were none. To-day 80 city school systems report that they have research departments, and no doubt there are others that have not reported. Every progressive school superintendent, even if he has no regularly organized research department, is attacking his problems in a scientific manner by having the supervisors, principals, and teachers prepare data for his guidance. He is in some way securing the necessary information. But the most economical way is through an organized research bureau.

It is generally reported that research bureaus have brought about a greater efficiency in the management of the schools. However, the board of education that organizes a research bureau with the expectation of helping to reduce the tax rate will no doubt be disappointed. It will find leaks here and there, but, on the other hand, it will find that some phases of the school work are inefficient because of insufficient support. Efficiency in the management of a school system, as in the management of a private corporation, does not mean niggardly expenditure. Efficiency means making the best use of the funds appropriated. Increased efficiency often means that larger appropriations should be made. In a manufacturing plant it sometimes means the scrapping of old machinery and the installation of new at great expense. The school world and the public have been slow to realize the fact that efficiency consists in getting the most out of every dollar available. Possibly if the school men of the country had attacked their problems in a more businesslike way by checking up every expenditure in order to see definitely whether it was too much for the results or so little that there could be no results, the public, especially that part of the public accustomed to dealing with things in a businesslike way, would be more willing than it now is to vote for increased expenditures.

The scope of the work of several research bureaus is contained in City School Leaflet No. 5, 1922, published by the Bureau of Education. The scope of the work of two of the more recently organized bureaus may, however, be given here as examples—that of Akron, Ohio, and that of Chicago, Ill.

The research bureau at Akron, organized in 1920, has as its object:

(1) To keep up a continuous survey of elementary school work through the use of standardized educational tests; (2) to train teachers in the use of educational tests; (3) to help improve instruction; (4) to experiment in classification; (5) to handle all mental testing; (6) to form special classes under direction of a psychologist; (7) to make age-grade studies; (8) to develop course of study for the elementary grades.

The scope of the work is further explained by the nature of the studies that it has made, which were:

In 1921-22.—Survey in arithmetic each semester; program in arithmetic each semester; relative effect of experimental methods on reading compared with regular methods; relative effect of Courtis and Studebaker practice material compared with regular methods; correlation between success in 9B work and score made in national intelligence examination, grade A; classification based on results of intelligence examinations and work on school subjects in one large elementary school; age-grade studies.

In 1920-21.—A survey of schools in reading, arithmetic, spelling, and penmanship; measured progress made during year in reading and arithmetic; measured relative effectiveness of Courtis and Studebaker practice material on arithmetic as compared with usual methods of drill.

The Chicago school research bureau, organized in 1920, makes measurements to help solve certain problems which are general to the school system. Assistance is given to principals of individual schools in the use of tests for a solution of their problems. Tests in certain subjects have been used throughout the city in order to discover weak places and suggest more adequate methods of instruction. Intelligence and achievement tests are used to study the effect of an increased amount of industrial work in the last three grades of the elementary school. A number of the elementary schools which are organized on this basis give from one-fourth to one-fifth of the time of these three upper grades to industrial work.

In a number of schools, a study of the relation of achievement to failures in the various school subjects has been made. This use of the text has proved very valuable to the school studies. Wherever measurements are used, the attempt is made to make the results useful to the school system.

In 1920 a series of experiments on the following problems was begun, in cooperation with the University of Illinois: (1) The effect the size of the class has on the achievement of pupils; (2) the effect of the grouping of pupils according to ability on their achievement.

TEACHERS' SALARIES.

Since 1918 the attention of city school boards has been turned as never before toward the problem of securing and retaining an efficient corps of teachers. Shortly after the beginning of the World War the teaching staff in every city began to dwindle away by the resignation of many teachers whose places had to be filled with others usually less well qualified. Some cities resorted to bonuses, but even these were insufficient. About 1918 many cities began to increase salaries, but still the ranks were not filled, but by 1922 the salaries of city school-teachers had been increased until they equaled or surpassed to a slight degree the purchasing power of the 1913 salaries. The National Education Association arrives at the following conclusion regarding teachers' salaries and their purchasing power:²

1. Teachers' salaries throughout the war had less purchasing power than they did at the beginning of the war, whereas wages in general had greater purchasing power than they did at the beginning of the war.

2. Teachers' salary increases lagged far behind the rise in the cost of living and have only just recently returned to their pre-war purchasing value.

3. There is yet an insufficient decline in the cost of living to justify any reduction in teachers' salaries on this basis.

4. Additional increases in salaries of teachers must be granted, if there is to be any substantial increase in the purchasing power of the teachers' wages and if there is to be any compensation to teachers for their cheerful acceptance throughout the war of a salary greatly depreciated in purchasing power.

Salaries were increased from 1918 to 1921, but for the year 1922-23 very few cities have made any great increases. In some instances there were slight reductions. On the whole, the salaries paid in 1921-22 are holding. It is doubtful whether any further increases may be expected for several years, since strenuous efforts are being made in many cities to reduce expenses and in the others not to increase expenses. It is the general opinion of school men that, if well-qualified teachers are to be retained and if high-school graduates are to be induced to prepare for teaching, there should be no cuts in salaries but, rather, that there should be increases.

Naturally, boards of education, superintendents, and teachers have given considerable attention to salary schedules during the period of salary increases. The newer salary schedules may be classified as: (1) The automatic type—i. e., a teacher advances in salary

² Facts on the Cost of Public Education.

according to length of service, or to grade taught, irrespective of professional preparation or of merit; (2) the single-schedule type, based upon professional training and length of service. Many cities still retain the first type of schedule, which is built upon automatic increases, covering periods ranging from 5 to 10 or 12 years, merit and added professional training receiving but little or no recognition.

The schedules of Cleveland and Denver may be given as examples of those based upon professional training. The Cleveland schedule is based upon professional training, but still maintains the gradation of the old type. The principal features of the Cleveland schedule are:

1. An automatic schedule based upon minimum requirements, allowing certain regular annual increases for experience.
2. Additional allowances beyond the regular schedule for further professional training.
3. Automatic allowances or steps within each advanced group.

The Denver schedule is distinctly a single-salary schedule: all teachers with equivalent training and experience are paid the same salary, whether they teach in elementary, intermediate, or high school. The requirements provide for five degrees of standards of training, ranging from normal training to holders of a master's degree, with provision for teachers now employed who have less than standard requirements.

A schedule recently suggested for the Detroit schools attempts to give a proper consideration for both professional training and merit. This schedule is based upon three factors: (1) Professional preparation; (2) successful experience; (3) rewards for meritorious service.

The salary schedule recently adopted by the school board of Fort Smith, Ark., may be given as an example of a single-salary schedule in operation in one of the smaller cities. This schedule provides for a classification of teachers on the basis of academic and professional training, as follows:

Class 1. Master's degree (or equivalent) from an approved institution.

Class 2. Bachelor's degree (or equivalent) from an approved institution.

Class 3. Normal diploma (or equivalent) from an approved institution.

Class 4. Less preparation than Class 3.

Each teacher is assigned to a classification at the time of employment. The schedule for each class applies thereafter until the maximum is reached, subject to the following reservations: A teacher may advance from one class to another by reason of additional approved preparation. Credit for additional preparation will be recognized

only in multiples of one-fourth of one year's college work (usually not less than seven and one-half semester hours).

The provisions of the schedule apply to all grades: teachers with equivalent training and experience may receive equal salaries whether they teach in the secondary schools or in the elementary schools.

Among the cities that have adopted some form of single-salary schedule are Birmingham, Ala.; Fort Smith, Ark.; Denver and Pueblo, Colo.; Chicago, Park Ridge, and Streator, Ill.; Des Moines and Sioux City, Iowa; Fort Smith and Lawrence, Kans.; Adrian and Grand Rapids, Mich.; Duluth, Virginia, St. Cloud, and Rochester, Minn.; St. Joseph and Kansas City, Mo.; Hastings, Lincoln, and Omaha, Nebr.; Raleigh and Washington, N. C.; Cleveland, Cleveland Heights, and Oberlin, Ohio; Muskogee, Okla.; Harrisburg, Pa.; Roanoke, Va.; Spokane, Wash.; Green Bay, Wis.

The tendency is undoubtedly toward a salary schedule that recognizes professional preparation and provides for equal pay for equivalent preparation and experience. Merit also is being considered, but it is doubtful whether many of the schedules providing for the recognition of merit have always been successfully administered, from the fact that merit in a teacher is so difficult to measure. The teacher who is graded low compares herself with some other teacher more fortunate and then concludes that she has been unfairly and unjustly marked. In not a few places the dissension in the teaching corps in consequence of alleged unfairness in evaluating the efficiency of teachers has outweighed the benefits. Indeed, it is the fear of engendering such discord that has deterred many school boards from adopting a plan to recognize individual merit in terms of the salary schedule.

The merit system of promotion has, however, been in successful operation in many cities. The superintendent of schools, Boston, Mass., says, regarding the plan of appointing and promoting teachers on merit in that city:³

The establishment of merit lists for original appointments and for promotion of teachers within the service is one of the most notable achievements in recent school administration. These lists are constructed on certain objective and measureable bases, which are general in their character and which in so far as possible apply to all candidates alike. These bases include general education, professional improvement and growth, personal characteristics, quantitative and qualitative experience in teaching, etc. They are made in a purely impersonal manner, in absolute good faith, with extreme care, and by the best judicial intelligence that a school system can marshal. These lists are made in conformity with civil-service practices, the utmost publicity is furnished all candidates concerning the method of rating and the results thereof, and the body creating the list stands ready to correct any error of judgment or to remedy any injustice.

³ School Document No. 12, 1922, Boston Public Schools.

Whatever imperfections may appear, as the plans and procedure of rating are developed, the operation of the system unmistakably facilitates the administration of the schools and tends to create confidence throughout the service. All external interference, political or otherwise, is reduced to a minimum, and in the long run capable and progressive men, and women are more likely to receive just professional deserts than under any plan of appointment and promotion where the superintendent of schools is the sole judge of proficiency. Moreover, the merit system tends to eliminate discrimination against a candidate because of race, or creed, or politics. It is consistent with our democratic, social, and political organization. An elaborate merit system may be impracticable in smaller communities, but in the larger towns and cities school authorities in the future will find great difficulty in justifying appointments and promotions upon any other basis.

An example of a salary schedule based upon merit alone is that of Newton, Mass. Mr. U. G. Wheeler, superintendent of the Newton schools, says regarding the teachers' salary schedule of that city:

The Newton plan of grading salaries, inaugurated some years ago by Doctor Spaulding, is founded on the double and apparently self-evident proposition that there is a considerable variation in the worth of different teachers, and that a teacher should be paid exactly what her services are worth. Said Doctor Spaulding, "The only practicably applicable measure of any teacher's worth is the cost of such service as she renders. How much will it cost to fill the teacher's place? For how much can we secure a teacher as good, should the place become vacant? Length of service is not merit. Faithfulness, conscientiousness, loyalty, and hard work are most commendable characteristics; but, alone, these characteristics can not be made the basis of an increase in salary, for we demand all these qualities, and many more like them, of every teacher whom we employ at any salary."

Upon this creed was founded the much discussed "merit system" of Newton. Briefly, it was, as follows:

It had but one constant factor, and that was a so-called "regular" salary. This was fixed at a figure about equal to the salary necessary at that time to secure and retain a teacher of such recognized ability that she would unquestionably be placed on the permanent list. All teachers then in service who had been in the system three years or more were given or promised this regular salary, and no teacher was continued beyond the three-year limit who, in the judgment of principals, supervisors, and superintendent, was not worth this stated amount. Beyond this "regular" salary all teachers might hope to advance. No stated annual increment was promised, and no final maximum was fixed. Every advance was granted strictly on merit, and varied in amount according to the degree of efficiency the teacher was judged to possess. It is obvious that in time there resulted considerable variation in the higher salaries paid, and many teachers of long experience were not advanced beyond the regular, fixed salary. New teachers were given an initial salary according to experience and estimated worth but never in excess of the so-called "regular" salary. Their advance to the regular salary, or beyond, was reasonably certain, for otherwise their places would be filled by more promising teachers.

There is only one constant factor in the scheme—the so-called "regular" salary. Suppose we place this at \$1,000. All teachers in the system are im-

mediately given or promised this amount. New teachers begin at from \$1,200 to \$1,600, according to training, experience, and estimated worth, and none are permanently retained who, in three years' time, are not rated as \$1,600 teachers. All may aspire to an unnamed and unknown amount beyond the \$1,600, the rate of increase and ultimate salary in each case depending solely upon merit as judged by administrative and supervisory officers.

To avoid as far as possible the danger of unfairness and to provide against errors of judgment, most superintendents making merit one of the factors in the promotion of teachers use a form for scoring the efficiency of each teacher. In many instances the teacher is graded by two or more persons independently, and the teacher is informed of her ranking before her salary for the year is fixed. The following scheme of rating teachers is in use in many of the schools using some form of rating card:

Qualities rated.	Very poor.	Poor.	Medium.	Good.	Excellent.
I. Personal equipment:					
General appearance.....					
Health.....					
Voice.....					
Quickness of perception.....					
Initiative.....					
Adaptability, resourcefulness.....					
Accuracy.....					
Industry.....					
Enthusiasm and optimism.....					
Integrity and sincerity.....					
Self-control.....					
Promptness.....					
Tact.....					
Sense of justice.....					
II. Social and professional equipment:					
Grasp of subject matter.....					
Understanding of children.....					
Interest in school work.....					
Interest in parents.....					
Interest in lives of pupils.....					
Cooperation and loyalty.....					
Professional interest and growth.....					
Daily preparation.....					
Use of English.....					
Standing in community.....					
III. School management:					
Care of light, heat, and ventilation.....					
Neatness of room.....					
Discipline.....					
IV. Technique of teaching:					
Clearness of aim.....					
Skill in habit formation.....					
Skill in stimulating thought.....					
Skill in teaching how to study.....					
Skill in questioning.....					
Skill in care and assignment.....					
Skill in arousing interest.....					
Skill in getting pupils to work.....					
Ability to follow directions.....					
V. Results:					
Habit of attention of class.....					
Habit of willing obedience.....					
Growth of pupils in knowledge.....					
Moral influence.....					
Growth in habits of cleanliness.....					
Growth in habits of industry.....					

Most of the rating schemes attempt to formulate a basis for judging certain characteristics of the teacher. A teacher may have many of the characteristics called for on the score card, as health,

good voice, self-control, honesty, etc., and not be a good teacher. There should therefore be some attempt to rate teachers on results. The following is suggested:

I. *Pupil achievement.* Minimum 50, maximum 75.

1. Objectively measured (for each subject).

a. Knowledge.

b. Skill.

2. Other achievements.

a. Habits of study.

b. Attitude toward—

Work.

School government.

School organization.

Moral questions.

Life preparation.

II. *Merit in mechanics of worker.* Minimum 20, maximum 40.

1. Organization and administration of—

a. Tools.

b. Raw material.

2. Skill in technical method.

III. *Merit as a social worker.* Minimum 20, maximum 40.

1. Cooperation with organization.

2. Professional habits.

3. Success in dealing with parents.

4. Sympathetic interpretation of pupils.

5. Discharge of obligations as community member.

In the administration of any such plan for rating the following would need to be taken for granted:

1. The knowledge of the potential ability of pupils to achieve, measured in terms of their intelligence.

2. A statement of pupil achievement at the beginning of any period over which the efficiency of a teacher's work is to be judged.

3. The working out of intelligible standards in the items to be listed under "other achievements."

4. Specific statement by the supervisor or in the course of study, or both, of the tools and methods to be used and how to use them.

The plan of granting credit for attendance at summer school has been adopted by many school boards as a means of encouraging professional improvement. A bonus is sometimes granted for this activity, usually about \$2.50 to \$6 per month, which is added to the salary the year following the course, or a cash bonus of \$25 to \$60, and in a few instances \$100. In some cases an advance upon the salary schedule is granted in addition to the normal advance.

The problem of providing an equitable basis for the promotion of teachers has its counterpart in providing a just way of removing teachers from the service for various causes. That injustice is sometimes done a teacher by the hasty action of a superintendent can not be denied, but, on the other hand, incompetent teachers are often

* Raymond Kent. Jour. Educ. Research, Dec., 1920, p. 806.

retained in service because of the difficulty of removing them. When teachers are appointed for a term of only one year, it is easy to drop the inefficient teacher, but in school systems where teachers are placed on tenure it is often a difficult matter to dismiss a teacher.

A committee of the National Education Association, appointed to make a study of teachers' tenure, has the following to say regarding the removal of teachers:

During the probationary period there is little question but that the removing power of the board should be strongly preserved. In order that the teaching staff itself may be protected from the danger of weak and incompetent teachers on permanent tenure, it is necessary that high standards of entrance requirements be required. It should not only be the duty of the superintendent and supervisors to study the attitudes and abilities of the probationary teachers with great care and exactitude, but the teachers already on tenure should indorse and encourage the continued maintenance of those professional requisites which protect them from being weakened through the accumulation of an incompetent and undesirable element which brings discredit to the profession and which has interfered with the progress of protective measures for the benefit of a large majority of successful teachers already in the service.

The board of education, therefore, should have the right, upon recommendation of the superintendent, to drop any probationary teacher at the end of the school year after a reasonable notice. The notice should not be less than 30 days. The Portland (Oreg.) law provides that a probationary teacher shall not be dismissed simply on account of friction between her and the principal without giving such teacher a fair opportunity with another principal. The teacher might be dropped at any time after a reasonable notice, a notice of not less than 60 days. A written statement signed by the superintendent should be given the teacher, stating the reasons for her dismissal. If the deficiency be due to a lack of skill in classroom management, removal should not be made until the teacher has been warned and an opportunity given to correct the same.

After the probationary period teachers should be removed only for cause. The causes enumerated include one or more of the following: Inefficiency, neglect of duty, professional stagnation, indifference and lack of growth, lack of cooperation, disloyalty, immorality, unprofessional conduct, insubordination, ill health and physical disability, or any other reason that would annul a teacher's certificate. The New York law specifies that the teacher shall hold her position "during good behavior and efficient and competent service." The proposed Ohio law gave neglect of duty, insubordination, conduct unbecoming a teacher, and immoral or criminal conduct as causes for removal. The Pawtucket (R. I.) regulations specify only misconduct or incapacity. The Massachusetts law lists no specific reason.

Teachers may be dismissed at any time for the causes enumerated above. In all cases written notices of charges are necessary, and the teacher is given an opportunity of a hearing to refute the charges. Pending the hearing the teacher may be suspended, and this suspension is without pay if the charge is sustained. Usually the board of education has the final decision in these matters. New York, New Jersey, and California, however, provide for an appeal to the State superintendent or other authority. Portland, Oreg., provides for appeal by the unique method of a trial board of three appointed by the presiding judge of the circuit court. In all cases where the decision to remove is supported by less than five of the seven members of the board of

education an appeal may be taken by the teacher to the commission. The decision of this special commission is final and conclusive. If five of the members of the board vote for removal no appeal from this decision can be made. A majority of the board can remove.

The questionnaire sent to affiliated units of the National Education Association indicates that the majority of the teaching organization believe that the hearing should be held before the board of education. Quite a number favor the first hearing before the superintendent and supervisory officials. This group usually believes in an appeal to the local board of education. Those favoring the initial trial before the board or superintendent and board would provide for an appeal to the State superintendent of education for his department. A number of suggestions were made that the trial be held before a joint committee consisting of representatives of the board, the teaching body, and citizens. Another recommendation that a committee of three be substituted consisting of one representing the board or superintendent, another the teacher, and a third to be selected by these two.

Since the board of education is the agency which employs the teacher, it would seem that they should also be the removing agency. The right to employ implies the right to dismiss. The privilege of reviewing the action of the board in dismissing a teacher is a fundamental principle of American democratic justice and a reasonable protection that should be provided. Since the majority of dismissals are based on technical questions, such as neglect of duty, incompetency, inefficiency, conduct unbecoming a teacher, and the like, it seems that the final body of appeal should be in educational work and yet disinterested. Dr. Kandel, of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, states that "the best practice to-day provides for an appeal to the State superintendent of public instruction."

The question of whether the hearings should be public or private is a debatable one, and the committee would request an opportunity to give this more study. The general practice is to have the hearings private, although there seems to be developing a strong tendency to make the matter of privacy optional with the teachers. There are undoubtedly occasions when the nature of the accusations might demand a private hearing in order to protect the teachers, the school system, and the children of the community themselves.

On the other hand, publicity serves as a competent check upon hasty and ill-advised action. It may prove a restraint upon judicious and justifiable dismissals, however, and consequently may work to the detriment of the school organization.

It is a striking fact that the majority of those answering the questionnaire sent to the affiliated organizations of the National Education Association indicated a preference for private hearings. Quite a group, it will be noted, also felt that this privilege should be left to the discretion of the teacher accused, and the hearings be public or private as she requests. It seems that the accusing body should have some right of determination in this matter also, since the advisability of presenting evidence might hinge on the kind of hearing granted. If the first hearing were private and the right of appeal allowed, which would be public or private as the teacher requested, perhaps all rights would be safeguarded.

• QUALIFICATIONS.

During the period from 1917 to 1921 the city school systems of the country suffered from a lack of trained and experienced teachers. Nearly everywhere there was a lowering of standards, but within

the past year there is every indication that the standards are being raised in those cities where the standards had been uniformly low. Memphis, Tenn., for example, has adopted new and higher standards for teachers' requirements by requiring teachers beginning service in the Memphis school system to have credits for at least two years of normal school or college work in addition to a high-school education. Those already employed who are without this training are exempted from the rule.

Wheeling, W. Va., may be given as another example of a city that has raised the standards. In 1921 when a survey was made of the schools of that city the educational and professional qualifications required for beginning service in both the elementary and high school were very low. Immediately upon the report of the survey commission the board of education adopted the following resolutions regarding the preparation of teachers:

That after July 1, 1921, no new teacher or supervisor shall be employed for service in the high schools who is not a graduate of an accredited four-year college or university course, except that teachers or supervisors in special technical subjects may offer successful experience in the vocations related to such subjects in lieu of two years of such college or university course, provided two years of approved professional training beyond high-school graduation be offered.

That after July 1, 1921, no new teacher or supervisor shall be employed for service in the elementary schools who is not a graduate of an approved normal school or teachers' college course consisting of two years' work beyond graduation from a standard high school, or, in the case of special trade subjects, who has not had the equivalent of two years of professional preparation for teaching or supervising the subject in question.

That after July 1, 1921, to be eligible for a new appointment as principal of a school a candidate should meet the minimum requirements herein set forth, and in addition should have had not less than five years' successful experience in teaching, and have completed an approved course of professional preparation in school administration and supervision.

That in the cases of all principals, teachers, and supervisors who were employed in the Wheeling public schools during the year ended June, 1921, and reappointed for the ensuing year, the application of the minimum requirements as herein set forth be waived until September 1, 1927; and that the superintendent be directed to report on the professional qualifications of all principals, teachers, and supervisors at the regular meeting of the board in September of each year.

That after July 1, 1925, no person shall be employed for substitute service who does not meet with the minimum qualifications of regular teachers as set forth in this resolution.

COUNCILS.

One of the outstanding movements of the past few years is the organization of teachers' councils, which are generally constituted for some or all of the following purposes: (1) To raise the standard

of the teaching profession; (2) to encourage professional improvement; (3) to foster a spirit of sympathetic good will and helpfulness among teachers and a better understanding between teachers and officials; and (4) to democratize the school system; that is, to give teachers a voice in the shaping of educational policies.

If teachers' councils do nothing more than to bring about a friendly cooperative relation between school boards and teachers, they are worthy of encouragement. In too many instances there has been this lack of cooperation, from the fact that the teachers have been considered as mere cogs in a great machine. This has been especially true in the larger cities where school machinery is complicated and where there is no contact between the teaching staff and administrative authorities. In the nature of things only a few teachers can be acquainted with the members of the school board and with the superintendent, and these are not always representative of the teaching body. Certainly they are not so considered by the teachers unless they were chosen by the teachers to represent them. If a superintendent or a school board consults a few teachers selected at random, difficulties are apt to arise, and the whole administrative machinery may get out of gear. It is difficult for the school board to know what teachers to consult. The only democratic way is to consult them all. Some superintendents and school boards have realized that the intelligence of the whole teaching body should be capitalized and that it is unwise to consult only a few teachers. They have, therefore, encouraged the organization of teachers' councils. In some instances such councils have been organized only after considerable parleying with school officials. Much better results could be expected if the teachers were invited to offer their opinions upon matters that vitally concern the schools.

To autocratic boards and superintendents the claim of teachers to be heard in board meetings seems radical. What right, it is asked, have teachers to ask to be consulted? The school board is responsible to the people, not to the teachers, and therefore must formulate all policies. It is replied that no right is taken away from the board, for its province is to legislate, and it should do so with all the light available. No right of the superintendent is abrogated, for he, too, should make his recommendations only upon the fullest information possible.

If a teachers' council attempts to usurp the prerogatives of a board or of a superintendent, it has no excuse for existing. It is generally recognized that the function of a council should be: To secure active and effective direction of the schools by affording the largest opportunities for initiative on the part of teachers in the formulation of courses of study and in the selection of textbooks;

to encourage professional interests and to furnish a ready and effective means for the expression of sentiments and opinions with reference to questions of school policy.

Superintendents and boards that have recognized teachers' councils report generally that the conferences of the members of the council and administrative officials bring great help to the latter. One superintendent says that the educational council has been of more help to him than to the teachers, that it keeps him in touch with them, and that he is thus able to know their opinions upon various matters. In other words, this superintendent is given a broader view of school affairs by those who are closest to the children. A teacher of children knows the weak points of the course of study; she knows whether the textbooks in use are well adapted to the children in her grade. Granting that the opinion of a single teacher might not be worth much, the combined opinions of the entire teaching corps are certainly worthy of consideration.

Whatever course teachers' councils may take, it should be remembered that the school board and the superintendent are the final authorities representing the public and that teachers legally have no legislative functions. Wise school boards and superintendents should, however, utilize the first-hand knowledge that teachers have of school conditions.

School superintendents generally state that the work of teachers' councils has been beneficial. Among the specific achievements the following are reported: (1) Aided in securing a retirement law; (2) conducted successful campaign for school bonds; (3) formed loan fund for teachers; (4) procured general increase in salaries; (5) worked out a new course of study; (6) unified teachers by social gatherings; (7) held meetings for professional advancement; (8) conducted lecture courses; (9) secured use of school buildings for community purposes; (10) established cooperation between schools and private music teachers; (11) brought about better working conditions for teachers; (12) provided rest rooms for teachers; (13) organized parent-teacher associations; (14) equipped playgrounds.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

One of the biggest problems confronting boards of education is how to provide enough school buildings to relieve congestion and to replace the many old buildings unsuitable for use both from a sanitary and an educational viewpoint. At the beginning of the World War nearly every city needed more school buildings. At the close of the war the situation had become deplorable, since no buildings had been erected during the war period.

An idea of the school-building situation was forcibly set forth in 1921 by the national committee for chamber of commerce cooperation with the public schools in a bulletin, "Know and Help Your Schools." It was found by the committee that 298 out of 550 cities of 8,000 or more population were using over 3,000 portable school buildings, in which were housed more than 121,000 pupils; that 43,000 pupils were housed in rented dwellings, lofts, stores, etc., 55,000 in annexes, 8,000 in halls and corridors, 3,000 in attics, and 31,000 in basement rooms. After making a deduction of the number of pupils in annexes, there were still more than 215,000 school children in these 298 cities housed in makeshift rooms. The committee also found that in 151 of 429 cities reporting there were more than 248,000 children on half-time because of the lack of schoolroom space. In all, there were more than 463,000 children who were either on half-time or housed in makeshift buildings.

To provide proper school accommodations for this army of children it would require 11,575 classrooms, counting 40 pupils to a class, or 724 school buildings of 16 rooms each, which would require an expenditure of \$138,900,000 at a cost of \$12,000 a classroom. It must be remembered that this estimate is for less than one-third of the cities of 8,000 or more population.

The report of the committee also shows that the majority of the elementary-school buildings were erected many years ago, the median elementary-school building being 24 years old. It is thus evident that many of the school buildings are antique and a hazard to the life and a menace to the health of both teachers and pupils.

This was the housing condition of the city schools two years ago. Just how much progress has been made to relieve the situation is not definitely known. Some cities have begun extensive building programs, while others have done but little. There are still thousands of children on part time. The old, insanitary buildings are still in use. Where new buildings have been erected they have possibly not more than taken care of the normal growth of the schools, which has been great, especially the junior and senior high school enrollment.

Some cities are helping to solve the school-building problem by erecting junior high school buildings, which will relieve congestion not only in the elementary schools but also in the high school by taking the seventh and eighth grades out of the elementary buildings and the ninth grade out of the high-school building. In a city having, say, 5,000 school children there would be approximately 730 of these in the seventh and eighth grades and 250 in the ninth grade, which would make a junior high school of 980 pupils.

After many years of wasteful expenditure on eight-room school buildings, boards of education are beginning to realize that the large

building is much more economical from every standpoint; so in the larger cities they are beginning to erect buildings of 24 or more rooms. In the smaller cities one building to house all the grades would usually be sufficient and much more economical than a half dozen small buildings of from 4 to 8 rooms. Modern educational facilities can not be provided economically in a small building.

THE PLAYGROUNDS OR WORK-STUDY-PLAY SCHOOL.

In the earlier days of our country the school could well be set apart almost solely for the teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic, because the children were called upon at an early age to share in their parents' work, thus learning much that is denied the child of to-day. Instead of big fields and forests in which children could work, hunt, and indulge in free play, they now have the cities with their crowded streets and dirty alleys. Instead of the apprentice shop there is the factory in which children are rightly forbidden to work. In short, there is nothing for the children of a modern city to do except sit still in the house or run the streets.

The big question of the day is how to educate a child of the modern city by any other means than books, the study of which constitutes but a fraction of one's education. It is now recognized that work and play are as essential in education as opportunity for study in the classroom, that no child was ever educated by study alone, and that children are educated by three things—work, study, and play. But, as just pointed out, children in a modern city are deprived of two of these three essential elements of an education.

The question is, how to meet these conditions. The answer: Provide school playgrounds, manual-training shops, home-economics rooms, gymnasiums, auditoriums, and special rooms of various kinds, so that the children may secure more than a mere "book education."

In order to offer more than classroom work, many city school superintendents in making plans for a modern school plant include playgrounds, an auditorium, a gymnasium, shops, cooking and sewing rooms, and science, music, and art rooms. In some of the cities where playgrounds, auditoriums, gymnasiums, and the like have been provided they are idle part of the time. The playgrounds are used only a few minutes at the recess period, when an attempt is made to have all the children on the playground at the same time. Some of the classrooms are vacant when the children are in the gymnasium or in the manual training shops or home economics rooms, and during this time the regular classroom teachers are in their rooms alone. When the special supervisor of music, art, and other subjects comes around there are two teachers in a room—the supervisor and the regular teacher.

In some cities the schools have been so organized that all the plant is in use all the time school is in session. This has been accomplished by dividing a school into two parts, each having the same number of classes and each containing all the grades housed in the building, whether it be six or more grades. One part, which may be called the A school, comes to school in the morning, say at 8.30, and goes to classroom for reading, language, writing, arithmetic, history, or geography. While this school is in classrooms, it obviously can not use any of the special facilities; therefore the other school—B school—goes to the special activities, one-third to the auditorium, one-third to the playground, and one-third is divided among such activities as the shops, laboratories, drawing and music rooms. At the end of one or two periods—that is, when the first group of children has remained in school seats as long as it is thought good for them at one time—the A school goes to the playground, auditorium, and other special facilities, while the B school goes to the classrooms. This, in brief, is the plan in operation in 53 cities of the country, and is variously called the work-study-play, platoon, duplicate school, companion class, Gary, and other plans, but all are based upon the same principle, that of providing for work, study, and play by operating the school on the same basis on which all other public facilities are run, i. e., multiple use of facilities all the time.

It is evident that more children can be accommodated by a platoon system. The increase in housing capacity, however, varies according to the use made of playgrounds, auditorium, etc.

In reporting upon the increase in housing capacity made possible by organizing their schools on the platoon plan superintendents made the following reports: Housing capacity in the Akron, Ohio, schools was increased by the platoon plan 25 per cent; in Birmingham, Ala., 33 per cent; in Cuyahoga Falls, Ohio, from 10 to 40 per cent, varying in the different schools according to the number of special activities provided; in Dallas, Tex., 30 per cent; in Detroit, Mich., 33 per cent; in East Chicago, Ind., 50 per cent; in Gary, Ind., 40 per cent; in Montclair, N. J., 15 to 20 per cent; in Newark, N. J., 30 per cent; in New Castle, Pa., 25 to 33 per cent; in Passaic, N. J., 33 per cent; in Philadelphia, Pa., 20 per cent; in Pittsburgh, Pa., 10 to 70 per cent, varying in the different schools according to the number of special activities provided; in Rockford, Ill., from 20 to 25 per cent; in Sewickley, Pa., 25 to 33 per cent; in St. Paul, Minn., 20 per cent; in Stuttgart, Ark., 40 per cent; in Warren, Ohio, the highest increase in any building, 40 per cent, with an average of 19 per cent; in Youngstown, Ohio, from 20 to 30 per cent.

Detroit, Mich., began only a few years ago to experiment with the platoon plan, which proved so successful that it was decided to place all the elementary schools on the plan. Already 53 platoon schools have been organized in that city. Pittsburgh, Pa., which a year ago had 6 platoon schools, now has 15. Wilmington, Del., in order to relieve the congestion took two old buildings, remodeled them at little expense, and organized platoon schools, thereby accommodating more pupils and offering them opportunities for an education that had long been denied them. Thus one might continue through the list of cities that have organized platoon schools to show that this type of organization is growing in favor in the cities where such schools are in operation. One superintendent reports that as soon as he had organized a platoon school and had it in operation for a few months other sections of the city began to demand a school of the same kind.

Some of the advantages of the plan can best be expressed in the words of school superintendents who have organized platoon schools. Mr. Charles L. Spain, deputy superintendent of public schools, Detroit, Mich, writes:

Before one can become committed to the platoon school idea he must, as a prerequisite, believe in the social aims of education.

One who holds tenaciously to the formal training idea and believes that the end and aim of the elementary school is to give a thorough training in the tools of education may well be satisfied with the traditional form of elementary organization and will naturally look askance at all innovations.

To one who believes that in a democracy the aim of education is to enable each individual to develop to the fullest extent his individual powers by doing those things which are beneficial to society as a whole the platoon school, with its socialized activities, comes as a satisfactory solution of the elementary-school problem. Progressive educational thinkers are becoming daily more convinced that the big impelling motive in education is the social motive. All of our schools must in the future strive to realize more fully the social aims of education. The platoon school does this in a marked degree.

Mr. William Davidson, superintendent of schools, Pittsburgh, Pa., who has organized the elementary schools of that city on the platoon plan, says:

The platoon program undoubtedly creates an opportunity to introduce a health program of the right kind and sort in the public schools; special subjects are much better handled and taught, and at the same time in the regular subjects teachers have a higher degree of efficiency. The plan has developed a spirit of cooperation, and the teachers will not turn their backs on something that has given them real vision and inspiration. My observation is that a principal, no matter how good under the old plan, is immeasurably better under the platoon, since the plan creates an opportunity professionally to administer a school better. The platoon plan solves the real problems of the elementary school. In this plan we have a distinct advance over the old type, thanks to William Wirt, who brought over the horizon the biggest and finest advance of the century in elementary education.

The advantages of the plan as claimed by Mr. Lee Gilmore, supervising principal of the schools at Oakmont, Pa., are:

1. An equitable time distribution between work and play.
2. Subjects taught by specialists who have had specific training and preparation for their work.
3. The right kind of apparatus for presenting required work and rooms for special subjects where this apparatus and material may be kept properly.
4. Physical training and health education taught by those with the right kind of preparation and with the right attitude toward their work.
5. The opportunity for a longer school day by giving the pupils sufficient activity so that the regular academic studies do not become fatiguing.

I claim for the platoon school product a higher degree of mental efficiency, a superior physical development, and a moral outlook and attitude which will provide for a cleaner citizenship based on democratic principles and ethical conduct. The specializing agencies giving contact with nature, music, and art are replete in lessons which result in character building and a clearly viewpoint toward life. The physical training work inculcates a spirit of fair play, an attitude of unselfishness, and a practical working of the golden rule.

I am not before you to-day advocating the platoon school as a cheap type in education. I do claim a superior product at no greater cost than in what we call the old type of school.

Quotations from the speeches, pamphlets, and letters of other superintendents who have organized platoon schools would emphasize the foregoing citations.

A question often asked by those who would emphasize the three R's is whether these do not suffer in a work-study-play school. Educational tests given in Pittsburgh, Detroit, and in other places show that the children in the platoon schools rank as well as those in the traditional type school.

There is no reason why children in the platoon schools should not rank as well in the academic subjects as the children in the other type of school organization, since they have on a six-hour a day basis 210 minutes for language, arithmetic, geography, and history, or the same amount of time as is given those subjects in the schools not organized on the platoon plan.

The platoon or work-study-play plan of school organization is not being confined to the large industrial centers as may be seen from the list of cities reporting platoon or work-study-play schools. A few years ago it was thought that this type of organization was suitable only to such cities as Gary, Ind. The impression got abroad that the Gary schools were vocational schools, and that the Gary plan, as it was called, was not suitable for any communities except industrial centers. The fact of the matter is that the Gary schools never have attempted vocational work in the elementary grades. All they have attempted is general manual training by having the children make things of some use instead of having them work on models, as is done in many manual-training shops.

The platoon or work-study-play plan, once called the Gary plan, is adaptable to any community. There is no standardized platoon

school. Some superintendents do not provide auditorium periods, some do not include grades one and two in the organization, some have only a five-hour day. After a superintendent has decided that he is willing that more than one child shall use the same school seat at different times of the day, he may organize his school with a longer or shorter school day, he may teach any kind of manual training he wants to, he may or may not have auditorium periods, but if there is an auditorium in the building it should be used not alone because it is economical to do so, but because the auditorium exercises have educational value.

Every indication is that the platoon plan of school organization is here, and that within the next few years scores of cities will have some or all of their schools operating as platoon schools.

There are, however, many problems to solve. On the mechanical side there are such problems as the care of maps, provision for play in bad weather, the lunch hour. On the educational side there is the problem of the auditorium period. This is being solved, and, when it is, this period will be one of the most valuable ones of the day. The training of teachers for platoon schools is another problem, but the lack of teachers experienced in platoon schools has not deterred superintendents from organizing one or more such schools, since they have been able to find enough teachers within their system or elsewhere to take charge of the special activities.

In order to discuss some of the problems of the platoon school and to discuss methods for their solution the Commissioner of Education invited those interested in the platoon plan to a conference in Chicago in February, 1922. There was a hearty response to the invitation, and for the first time the platoon or work-study-play problems were discussed by a group of superintendents who had the plan in actual operation. Several superintendents who had not yet organized platoon schools were present and asked numerous questions. So successful was that first conference that the Bureau of Education was requested to call another in 1923. At this writing, invitations for the conference have been issued to all those who have written to the bureau that they have the plan in operation and to those who have requested information regarding the organization of platoon schools. The number of acceptances received indicate that interest has greatly increased since last year.

At the conference held in February, 1922, there were certain features of the platoon plan which practically all speakers emphasized. For example, that the plan is adaptable to any type of community; that it enables each school system to have an individuality of its own; that it not only increases the capacity of the school but greatly

enriches the school life of the children; that it is not necessary that a city be industrial or crowded in order to have the plan—the plan lending itself to any kind of community; and that the academic work does not suffer, but on the contrary improves under the plan.

TESTS.

A few years ago when several persons formulated standardized tests in arithmetic and two or three other subjects, it was stated by some superintendents, teachers, and others that tests of this kind were impractical, and it was predicted that they would never be generally used. This prediction has not come true; scores of tests have been formulated covering nearly every subject from the kindergarten to and including the high school. Every progressive school system is using a variety of standardized educational, or achievement, tests, as they are now generally termed.

Some superintendents, however, have not made the best possible use of such tests from the fact that they have used the tests to see how the score made by the pupils in their respective schools compare with the standard score, or with the score made by the children in a neighboring city. This use of the tests may help stimulate interest, but it is only the first step. Some superintendents have been taking other steps by using the tests to compare different methods of instruction, to determine how much drill is necessary in certain subjects, etc. In brief, the standardized educational test is now recognized as a most valuable means in analyzing a school system. A school survey of classroom instruction is no longer considered complete without the use of achievement tests.

Another form of test that has been introduced into many schools within the past three or four years is the intelligence test. This type of test is being used to assist in classifying children into groups of like mental ability. Although these two types of tests—achievement and intelligence—have been found valuable in classifying pupils, they have not taken the place entirely of the traditional examination to assist teachers in determining whether pupils should be promoted. The traditional type of examination is, however, being considerably modified, so that the papers may be graded with accuracy. As has been pointed out time after time in various publications, the traditional type of examination could not be graded to show whether a pupil made 50 per cent or 95 per cent, since the grading was purely subjective, depending partly upon the frame of mind in which the teacher was when reading the papers.

A newer type of examination is coming into use and will no doubt become general when its merits are understood and teachers learn how to formulate such examinations. These examinations admit of but

one answer, which is either right or wrong. Tests or examinations of this type may be classified as the true-false examination, the recognition examination, and the completion examination.

Such tests aid in the marking of papers, since the answer is either right or wrong. There are, however, other advantages, such as saving the time for both pupil and teacher. Dr. Walter S. Monroe, director of the bureau of educational research, University of Illinois, says regarding this new type of examination:⁶

The pupil is called upon to do little or no writing in giving his answers, and he is therefore able to respond to a large number of exercises. The scorer will have little or no occasion to exercise judgment, as he will need only to note the brief responses given by the pupils. Thus the labor of scoring will be greatly reduced. The saving of time in the giving and scoring will more than offset any additional time that may be expended in the construction of the "new examination." Another advantage is that the examination can be made more comprehensive. It is traditional for examinations to consist of 10 questions. A few are limited to a smaller number, and only occasionally do we find examinations consisting of more than 10 questions. The pupils can not write upon a large number of questions in the time allowed. Thus the scope of traditional examinations is necessarily narrow. We have stated that true-false examinations should include not fewer than 50 exercises. Examinations consisting of completion exercises or recognition exercises should have a corresponding length. Thus the new examination may be made distinctly larger in scope. Children are apt, also, to be interested in the new examinations, which are distinctly different from the usual type of school exercise, and which make an appeal somewhat in the nature of a game. In being relieved of much writing, which especially in the case of young children amounts in itself to a laborious exercise, they are probably less fatigued and are able to devote all their energies to the process of thinking.

SPECIAL CLASSES.

More and more the city schools of the country are making provision for the pupils who are misfits in an inflexible grading and promotion system. The special schools of Oakland may be mentioned as a typical example of the provisions being made for exceptional pupils. In that city more than 2,000 children each semester enter these classes, and most of them succeed in the work that they are given to do. Under an inflexible system most of them would be failures. These classes are called, respectively, atypical, limited, opportunity, and accelerated. Gifted pupils are not yet sufficiently provided for, which is also true of other cities; but more than 1,200 special promotions are made each semester. When these pupils reach the high school they do the best work of the school.

Special atypical classes are for children who are found by actual trial in school work and by mental test to show such mental retardation that they can not make satisfactory progress in a regular class with a reasonable expendi-

⁶Univ. of Ill. Bul. No. 9, "Written Examinations and Their Improvement."

ture of time and effort. Pupils in such classes usually have a mental retardation of three years or more. These classes are limited to an enrollment of 16 pupils each. The course of study varies widely from that of regular classes, manual work being strongly emphasized.

Special limited classes are for children who are so slow or dull mentally that they can not keep pace with regular class work. The purpose of such classes is to accommodate the overage, slow pupil, modifying the content of the course of study and the rate of progress so that such pupils may pass up through the grades, getting the most essential parts of the work of each grade and passing on for some training in the upper grammar grades or junior high school before the compulsory age limit is reached. Most of these pupils, if held to a rigid standard of regular grades, would reach the compulsory age limit and would pass out into industrial life long before finishing the elementary grades. Twenty-five to thirty pupils are expected to be the maximum for a class.

Special-opportunity classes are for those children who have good mental capacity but, because of lack of progress, due to illness, moving about, or other cause, are working in grades below where they should be. The purpose of these classes is to give such help as is needed quickly to adjust the pupil to take up work with a regular class which fits his capacity and needs.

Accelerated classes are for those pupils who have superior capacity. They may take an enriched program or progress more rapidly, or both. Any group of children moved on together from one class toward a higher group at a rate more rapid than normal should be classified under this head.

UNIFICATION OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM.

One of the criticisms that have been directed against the American public school is that it has been wasteful of the pupil's time, largely because of the fact that there has been a lack of unification in the program of studies. In brief, there has not been a straightaway course from the kindergarten on through the high school. There has been a break between the grades and the high school and one between the kindergarten and the first grade.

The break between the grades and the high school has been due largely to the fact that the work of the seventh and the eighth grades has repeated that of the fifth and sixth, thus having a backward rather than a forward look.

In order to articulate better the elementary schools with the high schools, grades 7, 8, and 9 have been organized as a unit in many cities and made to retain some of the best characteristics of each. The seventh grade, or especially the low seventh, is usually considered the period of adjustment, the high seventh and the low eighth the period of exploration and preview, the high eighth the period of provisional choice of electives, and the ninth the period for electing a curriculum or courses.

The organization of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades as junior high schools, or intermediate schools as they are called in a

* See also Bul. 12, 1923, U. S. Bu. of Educ.

few cities, is from all reports doing much to bridge the gap that existed between the grades and the high school. Pupils in the junior high school are no longer compelled to spend two years in reviewing the work of the fifth and sixth grades. After they have passed through the adjustment period of the low seventh, they are ready to begin taking a general review of literature, science, mathematics, social science, and other subjects which are eminently worth while to any pupil, whether he continues in school or not; but if he does continue, the general view that he has obtained enables him to make a less random choice of courses or curricula. The old seventh and eighth grade program of studies offered nothing new; it gave no general outlook; it confined itself to review. The program of the modern junior high school opens up a new world to the pupil; it gives him a forward look, thus better preparing him to begin high-school work; or, if he must leave school, he does so with the feeling that he has not wasted his time in the dull, wearisome repetition of the traditional seventh and eighth grades.

So strongly has the junior high school idea taken hold of not only school men but of the public in general that no school system is now considered complete without its junior high school organization. Practically every city that does not have such organization is planning to have it. It should be noted, however, that in some cities the organization of junior high schools has been a more or less mechanical matter which may be a step toward the junior high school, but unless the fundamental idea is completely conceived and worked out the name junior high school should not be applied.

Serious attempts are being made to bridge the gap not only between the elementary school and the high school but also between the kindergarten and the first grade. In many school systems the complaint has ceased that children who have had kindergarten training do not fit in with the methods in vogue in the first grade. There is now less complaint than formerly, since efforts have been made to build the first-grade course upon the modern kindergarten course. Only recently a committee composed of both kindergarten and first-grade supervisors and teachers prepared a course of study for the first grade based upon a kindergarten curriculum previously prepared by the kindergarten specialists of the Bureau of Education as Bulletin, 1919, No. 16. This kindergarten-first-grade course has been published by the Bureau of Education as Bulletin, 1922, No. 15, which has been in great demand by supervisors and others interested in bringing about a better coordination between the kindergarten and the first grade.

One of the plans adopted in some cities to unify the work of the kindergarten and the first grade is by means of a kindergarten primary supervisor. At Richmond, Va., for instance, the kinder-

garten-primary supervisor who has had experience in both kindergarten and primary grades emphasizes closer cooperation in the thought and work of these two formerly unrelated departments. Joint meetings of the kindergarten and first-grade teachers are frequently held to work out plans for cooperation. A committee has been at work considering the first-grade course of study so as to fit it better to the needs and powers of little children. In order to better correlate the kindergarten and primary work at Duluth, Minn., teachers have been encouraged to undertake the work of the grade preceding or following their own; so there has been planned a rotating scheme from the kindergarten through the second grade, the kindergarten teachers taking grade assignments, and the first and second grade teachers taking kindergarten assignments.

At Pittsfield, Mass., the afternoon work with the primary children in the kindergarten room has proved beneficial to the children and of real assistance to the kindergarten-primary teachers. The children appreciate the room without desks, and also the chance for communication with each other, which is of sociological value.

The misunderstanding that often arises between kindergarten and first-grade teachers is no doubt due largely to the fact that each has an entirely different philosophy of education for these two groups of children.

School officers often do not understand what the true purpose of early education is. Says Miss Mary C. Mellyn, assistant superintendent of the Boston public schools:

When the average school official talks to a kindergarten teacher, he says blandly, "keep the children happy." When he talks with a primary teacher, he says with a more serious mien, "keep the children busy," and this attitude of mind has done more than any other to keep the primary school and the kindergarten separated. Let us recognize in starting out that children are happy only when they are purposefully busy. Oftentimes the busy child of the primary school is an irritated child, because in the futile task set him he recognizes no purpose. With all children, life is a serious attempt to solve problems outside of school, and it should be so in school. * * * Purposeful, meaningful work, reaching down and tapping instinctive forces, the capitalizing of capacities for leadership, etc., in short a better knowledge of childish needs and resources, will lift all primary schools and kindergarten teaching on to a pedagogical plane unknown.

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